# Comparison of Weibull tail-coefficient estimators

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#### Abstract

We address the problem of estimating the Weibull tail-coefficient which is the regular variation exponent of the inverse failure rate function. We propose a family of estimators of this coefficient and an associate extreme quantile estimator. Their asymptotic normality are established and their asymptotic mean-square errors are compared. The results are illustrated on some finite sample situations.

**Keywords:** Weibull tail-coefficient, extreme quantile, extreme value theory, asymptotic normality.

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### 1 Introduction

Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables with cumulative distribution function F. We denote by  $X_{1,n} \leq ... \leq X_{n,n}$  their associated order statistics. We address the problem of estimating the Weibull tail-coefficient  $\theta > 0$  defined when the distribution tail satisfies

(A.1) 
$$1 - F(x) = \exp(-H(x)), x \ge x_0 \ge 0, H^{\leftarrow}(t) = \inf\{x, H(x) \ge t\} = t^{\theta} \ell(t),$$

where  $\ell$  is a slowly varying function *i.e.* 

$$\ell(\lambda x)/\ell(x) \to 1 \text{ as } x \to \infty \text{ for all } \lambda > 0.$$

The inverse cumulative hazard function  $H^{\leftarrow}$  is said to be regularly varying at infinity with index  $\theta$  and this property is denoted by  $H^{\leftarrow} \in \mathcal{R}_{\theta}$ , see [7] for more details on this topic. As a comparison,

Pareto type distributions satisfy  $(1/(1-F))^{\leftarrow} \in \mathcal{R}_{\gamma}$ , and  $\gamma > 0$  is the so-called extreme value index. Weibull tail-distributions include for instance Gamma, Gaussian and, of course, Weibull distributions.

Let  $(k_n)$  be a sequence of integers such that  $1 \le k_n < n$  and  $(T_n)$  be a positive sequence. We examine the asymptotic behavior of the following family of estimators of  $\theta$ :

$$\hat{\theta}_n = \frac{1}{T_n} \frac{1}{k_n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} (\log(X_{n-i+1,n}) - \log(X_{n-k_n+1,n})). \tag{1}$$

Following the ideas of [10], an estimator of the extreme quantile  $x_{p_n}$  can be deduced from (1) by:

$$\hat{x}_{p_n} = X_{n-k_n+1,n} \left( \frac{\log(1/p_n)}{\log(n/k_n)} \right)^{\hat{\theta}_n} =: X_{n-k_n+1,n} \tau_n^{\hat{\theta}_n}.$$
 (2)

Recall that an extreme quantile  $x_{p_n}$  of order  $p_n$  is defined by the equation

$$1 - F(x_{p_n}) = p_n$$
, with  $0 < p_n < 1/n$ .

The condition  $p_n < 1/n$  is very important in this context. It usually implies that  $x_{p_n}$  is larger than the maximum observation of the sample. This necessity to extrapolate sample results to areas where no data are observed occurs in reliability [8], hydrology [21], finance [9],... We establish in Section 2 the asymptotic normality of  $\hat{\theta}_n$  and  $\hat{x}_{p_n}$ . The asymptotic mean-square error of some particular members of (1) are compared in Section 3. In particular, it is shown that family (1) encompasses the estimator introduced in [12] and denoted by  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  in the sequel. In this paper, the asymptotic normality of  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  is obtained under weaker conditions. Furthermore, we show that other members of family (1) should be preferred in some typical situations. We also quote some other estimators of  $\theta$  which do not belong to family (1): [4, 3, 6, 19]. We refer to [12] for a comparison with  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$ . The asymptotic results are illustrated in Section 4 on finite sample situations. Proofs are postponed to Section 5.

## 2 Asymptotic normality

To establish the asymptotic normality of  $\hat{\theta}_n$ , we need a second-order condition on  $\ell$ :

**(A.2)** There exist  $\rho \leq 0$  and  $b(x) \to 0$  such that uniformly locally on  $\lambda \geq 1$ 

$$\log\left(\frac{\ell(\lambda x)}{\ell(x)}\right) \sim b(x)K_{\rho}(\lambda), \text{ when } x \to \infty,$$

with 
$$K_{\rho}(\lambda) = \int_{1}^{\lambda} u^{\rho-1} du$$
.

It can be shown [11] that necessarily  $|b| \in \mathcal{R}_{\rho}$ . The second order parameter  $\rho \leq 0$  tunes the rate of convergence of  $\ell(\lambda x)/\ell(x)$  to 1. The closer  $\rho$  is to 0, the slower is the convergence. Condition (A.2) is the cornerstone in all proofs of asymptotic normality for extreme value estimators. It is

used in [18, 17, 5] to prove the asymptotic normality of estimators of the extreme value index  $\gamma$ . In regular case, as noted in [13], one can choose  $b(x) = x\ell'(x)/\ell(x)$  leading to

$$b(x) = \frac{xe^{-x}}{F^{-1}(1 - e^{-x})f(F^{-1}(1 - e^{-x}))} - \theta,$$
(3)

where f is the density function associated to F.

Let us introduce the following functions : for t > 0 and  $\rho \le 0$ ,

$$\mu_{\rho}(t) = \int_{0}^{\infty} K_{\rho} \left( 1 + \frac{x}{t} \right) e^{-x} dx$$

$$\sigma_{\rho}^{2}(t) = \int_{0}^{\infty} K_{\rho}^{2} \left( 1 + \frac{x}{t} \right) e^{-x} dx - \mu_{\rho}^{2}(t),$$

and let  $a_n = \mu_0(\log(n/k_n))/T_n - 1$ . As a preliminary result, we propose an asymptotic expansion of  $(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)$ :

**Proposition 1** Suppose **(A.1)** and **(A.2)** hold. If  $k_n \to \infty$ ,  $k_n/n \to 0$ ,  $T_n \log(n/k_n) \to 1$  and  $k_n^{1/2} b(\log(n/k_n)) \to \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  then,

$$k_n^{1/2}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) = \theta \xi_{n,1} + \theta \mu_0(\log(n/k_n))\xi_{n,2} + k_n^{1/2}\theta a_n$$
  
  $+ k_n^{1/2}b(\log(n/k_n))(1 + o_P(1)),$ 

where  $\xi_{n,1}$  and  $\xi_{n,2}$  converge in distribution to a standard normal distribution.

Similar distributional representations exist for various estimators of the extreme value index  $\gamma$ . They are used in [16] to compare the asymptotic properties of several tail index estimators. In [15], a bootstrap selection of  $k_n$  is derived from such a representation. It is also possible to derive bias reduction method as in [14]. The asymptotic normality of  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is a straightforward consequence of Proposition 1.

**Theorem 1** Suppose (A.1) and (A.2) hold. If  $k_n \to \infty$ ,  $k_n/n \to 0$ ,  $T_n \log(n/k_n) \to 1$  and  $k_n^{1/2} b(\log(n/k_n)) \to \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  then,

$$k_n^{1/2}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta - b(\log(n/k_n)) - \theta a_n) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \theta^2).$$

Theorem 1 implies that the Asymptotic Mean Square Error (AMSE) of  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is given by :

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n) = (\theta a_n + b(\log(n/k_n)))^2 + \frac{\theta^2}{k_n}.$$
 (4)

It appears that all estimators of family (1) share the same variance. The bias depends on two terms  $b(\log(n/k_n))$  and  $\theta a_n$ . A good choice of  $T_n$  (depending on the function b) could lead to a sequence  $a_n$  cancelling the bias. Of course, in the general case, the function b is unknown making difficult the choice of a "universal" sequence  $T_n$ . This is discussed in the next section.

Clearly, the best rate of convergence in Theorem 1 is obtained by choosing  $\lambda \neq 0$ . In this case, the expression of the intermediate sequence  $(k_n)$  is known.

**Proposition 2** If  $k_n \to \infty$ ,  $k_n/n \to 0$  and  $k_n^{1/2}b(\log(n/k_n)) \to \lambda \neq 0$ ,

$$k_n \sim \left(\frac{\lambda}{b(\log(n))}\right)^2 = \lambda^2(\log(n))^{-2\rho}L(\log(n)),$$

where L is a slowly varying function.

The "optimal" rate of convergence is thus of order  $(\log(n))^{-\rho}$ , which is entirely determined by the second order parameter  $\rho$ : small values of  $|\rho|$  yield slow convergence. The asymptotic normality of the extreme quantile estimator (2) can be deduced from Theorem 1:

**Theorem 2** Suppose (A.1) and (A.2) hold. If moreover,  $k_n \to \infty$ ,  $k_n/n \to 0$ ,  $T_n \log(n/k_n) \to 1$ ,  $k_n^{1/2}b(\log(n/k_n)) \to 0$  and

$$1 \le \liminf \tau_n \le \limsup \tau_n < \infty \tag{5}$$

then,

$$\frac{k_n^{1/2}}{\log \tau_n} \left( \frac{\hat{x}_{p_n}}{x_{p_n}} - \tau_n^{\theta a_n} \right) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \theta^2).$$

## 3 Comparison of some estimators

First, we propose some choices of the sequence  $(T_n)$  leading to different estimators of the Weibull tail-coefficient. Their asymptotic distributions are provided, and their AMSE are compared.

#### 3.1 Some examples of estimators

- The natural choice is clearly to take

$$T_n = T_n^{(1)} =: \mu_0(\log(n/k_n)),$$

in order to cancel the bias term  $a_n$ . This choice leads to a new estimator of  $\theta$  defined by :

$$\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\mu_0(\log(n/k_n))} \frac{1}{k_n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} (\log(X_{n-i+1,n}) - \log(X_{n-k_n+1,n})).$$

Remarking that

$$\mu_{\rho}(t) = e^t \int_1^{\infty} e^{-tu} u^{\rho - 1} du$$

provides a simple computation method for  $\mu_0(\log(n/k_n))$  using the Exponential Integral (EI), see for instance [1], Chapter 5, pages 225–233.

- Girard [12] proposes the following estimator of the Weibull tail-coefficient:

$$\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)} = \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} (\log(X_{n-i+1,n}) - \log(X_{n-k_n+1,n})) / \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} (\log_2(n/i) - \log_2(n/k_n)),$$

where  $\log_2(x) = \log(\log(x)), x > 1$ . Here, we have

$$T_n = T_n^{(2)} =: \frac{1}{k_n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} \log \left( 1 - \frac{\log(i/k_n)}{\log(n/k_n)} \right).$$

It is interesting to remark that  $T_n^{(2)}$  is a Riemann's sum approximation of  $\mu_0(\log(n/k_n))$  since an integration by parts yields:

 $\mu_0(t) = \int_0^1 \log\left(1 - \frac{\log(x)}{t}\right) dx.$ 

– Finally, choosing  $T_n$  as the asymptotic equivalent of  $\mu_0(\log(n/k_n))$ ,

$$T_n = T_n^{(3)} =: 1/\log(n/k_n)$$

leads to the estimator:

$$\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)} = \frac{\log(n/k_n)}{k_n} \sum_{i=1}^{k_n} (\log(X_{n-i+1,n}) - \log(X_{n-k_n+1,n})).$$

For i = 1, 2, 3, let us denote by  $\hat{x}_{p_n}^{(i)}$  the extreme quantile estimator built on  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(i)}$  by (2). Asymptotic normality of these estimators is derived from Theorem 1 and Theorem 2. To this end, we introduce the following conditions:

- (C.1)  $k_n/n \to 0$ ,
- (C.2)  $\log(k_n)/\log(n) \to 0$ ,
- (C.3)  $k_n/n \to 0$  and  $k_n^{1/2}/\log(n/k_n) \to 0$ .

Our result is the following:

Corollary 1 Suppose (A.1) and (A.2) hold,  $k_n \to \infty$  and  $k_n^{1/2}b(\log(n/k_n)) \to 0$ . For i = 1, 2, 3:

i) If (C.i) hold then

$$k_n^{1/2}(\hat{\theta}_n^{(i)} - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \theta^2).$$

ii) If (C.i) and (5) hold, then

$$\frac{k_n^{1/2}}{\log \tau_n} \left( \frac{\hat{x}_{p_n}^{(i)}}{x_{p_n}} - 1 \right) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \theta^2).$$

In view of this corollary, the asymptotic normality of  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$  is obtained under weaker conditions than  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  and  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}$ , since (C.2) implies (C.1). Let us also highlight that the asymptotic distribution of  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  is obtained under less assumptions than in [12], Theorem 2, the condition  $k_n^{1/2}/\log(n/k_n) \to 0$  being not necessary here. Finally, note that, if b is not ultimately zero, condition  $k_n^{1/2}b(\log(n/k_n)) \to 0$  implies (C.2) (see Lemma 1).

#### 3.2 Comparison of the AMSE of the estimators

We use the expression of the AMSE given in (4) to compare the estimators proposed previously.

**Theorem 3** Suppose (A.1) and (A.2) hold,  $k_n \to \infty$ ,  $\log(k_n)/\log(n) \to 0$  and  $k_n^{1/2}b(\log(n/k_n)) \to \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Several situations are possible:

i) b is ultimately non-positive. Let us introduce  $\alpha = -4 \lim_{n \to \infty} b(\log n) \frac{k_n}{\log k_n} \in [0, +\infty]$ . If  $\alpha > \theta$ , then, for n large enough,

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}) < AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) < AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}).$$

If  $\alpha < \theta$ , then, for n large enough,

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) < \min(AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}), AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)})).$$

ii) b is ultimately non-negative. Let us introduce  $\beta = 2 \lim_{x \to \infty} xb(x) \in [0, +\infty]$ .

If  $\beta > \theta$  then, for n large enough,

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_{n}^{(3)}) < AMSE(\hat{\theta}_{n}^{(1)}) < AMSE(\hat{\theta}_{n}^{(2)}).$$

If  $\beta < \theta$  then, for n large enough,

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) < \min(AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}), AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)})).$$

It appears that, when b is ultimately non-negative (case ii)), the conclusion does not depend on the sequence  $(k_n)$ . The relative performances of the estimators is entirely determined by the nature of the distribution:  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$  has the best behavior, in terms of AMSE, for distributions close to the Weibull distribution (small b and thus, small b). At the opposite,  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}$  should be preferred for distributions far from the Weibull distribution.

The case when b is ultimately non-positive (case i)) is different. The value of  $\alpha$  depends on  $k_n$ , and thus, for any distribution, one can obtain  $\alpha = 0$  by choosing small values of  $k_n$  (for instance  $k_n = -1/b(\log n)$ ) as well as  $\alpha = +\infty$  by choosing large values of  $k_n$  (for instance  $k_n = (1/b(\log n))^2$  as in Proposition 2).

## 4 Numerical experiments

### 4.1 Examples of Weibull tail-distributions

Let us give some examples of distributions satisfying assumptions (A.1) and (A.2).

**Absolute Gaussian distribution**  $|\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)|$ ,  $\sigma > 0$ . From [9], Table 3.4.4, we have  $H^{\leftarrow}(x) = x^{\theta} \ell(x)$ , where  $\theta = 1/2$  and an asymptotic expansion of the slowly varying function is given by:

$$\ell(x) = 2^{1/2}\sigma - \frac{\sigma}{2^{3/2}} \frac{\log x}{x} + O(1/x).$$

Therefore  $\rho = -1$  and  $b(x) = \log(x)/(4x) + O(1/x)$ . b is ultimately positive, which corresponds to case ii) of Theorem 3 with  $\beta = +\infty$ . Therefore, one always has, for n large enough:

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}) < AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) < AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}). \tag{6}$$

**Gamma distribution**  $\Gamma(a,\lambda), a,\lambda > 0$ . We use the following parameterization of the density

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^a}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} \exp(-\lambda x).$$

From [9], Table 3.4.4, we obtain  $H^{\leftarrow}(x) = x^{\theta} \ell(x)$  with  $\theta = 1$  and

$$\ell(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{a-1}{\lambda} \frac{\log x}{x} + O(1/x).$$

We thus have  $\rho = -1$  and  $b(x) = (1 - a) \log(x)/x + O(1/x)$ . If a > 1, b is ultimately negative, corresponding to case i) of Theorem 3. The conclusion depends on the value of  $k_n$  as explained in the preceding section. If a < 1, b is ultimately positive, corresponding to case ii) of Theorem 3 with  $\beta = +\infty$ . Therefore, we are in situation (6).

Weibull distribution  $\mathcal{W}(a,\lambda)$ ,  $a,\lambda > 0$ . The inverse failure rate function is  $H^{\leftarrow}(x) = \lambda x^{1/a}$ , and then  $\theta = 1/a$ ,  $\ell(x) = \lambda$  for all x > 0. Therefore b(x) = 0 and we use the usual convention  $\rho = -\infty$ . One may apply either i) or ii) of Theorem 3 with  $\alpha = \beta = 0$  to get for n large enough,

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) < \min(AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}), AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)})).$$
 (7)

#### 4.2 Numerical results

The finite sample performance of the estimators  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$ ,  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  and  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}$  are investigated on 5 different distributions:  $\Gamma(0.5,1)$ ,  $\Gamma(1.5,1)$ ,  $|\mathcal{N}(0,1)|$ ,  $|\mathcal{W}(2.5,2.5)|$  and  $|\mathcal{W}(0.4,0.4)|$ . In each case, N=200 samples  $(\mathcal{X}_{n,i})_{i=1,\dots,N}$  of size n=500 were simulated. On each sample  $(\mathcal{X}_{n,i})$ , the estimates  $\hat{\theta}_{n,i}^{(1)}(k)$ ,  $\hat{\theta}_{n,i}^{(2)}(k)$  and  $\hat{\theta}_{n,i}^{(3)}(k)$  are computed for  $k=2,\dots,150$ . Finally, the associated Mean Square Error (MSE) plots are built by plotting the points

$$\left(k, \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\hat{\theta}_{n,i}^{(j)}(k) - \theta\right)^{2}\right) \ j = 1, \ 2, \ 3.$$

They are compared to the AMSE plots (see (4) for the definition of the AMSE):

$$\left(k, (\theta a_n^{(j)} + b(\log(n/k)))^2 + \frac{\theta^2}{k}\right) \ j = 1, \ 2, \ 3,$$

and where b is given by (3). It appears on Figure 1 – Figure 5 that, for all the above mentioned distributions, the MSE and AMSE have a similar qualitative behavior. Figure 1 and Figure 2 illustrate situation (6) corresponding to ultimately positive bias functions. The case of an ultimately negative bias function is presented on Figure 3 with the  $\Gamma(1.5, 1)$  distribution. It clearly appears that

the MSE associated to  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}$  is the largest. For small values of k, one has  $MSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) < MSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)})$  and  $MSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) > MSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)})$  for large value of k. This phenomenon is the illustration of the asymptotic result presented in Theorem 3i). Finally, Figure 4 and Figure 5 illustrate situation (7) of asymptotically null bias functions. Note that, the MSE of  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$  and  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  are very similar. As a conclusion, it appears that, in all situations,  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$  and  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  share a similar behavior, with a small advantage to  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$ . They provide good results for null and negative bias functions. At the opposite,  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}$  should be preferred for positive bias functions.

## 5 Proofs

For the sake of simplicity, in the following, we note k for  $k_n$ . We first give some preliminary lemmas. Their proofs are postponed to the appendix.

#### 5.1 Preliminary lemmas

We first quote a technical lemma.

**Lemma 1** Suppose that b is ultimately non-zero. If  $k \to \infty$ ,  $k/n \to 0$  and  $k^{1/2}b(\log(n/k)) \to \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\log(k)/\log(n) \to 0$ .

The following two lemmas are of analytical nature. They provide first-order expansions which will reveal useful in the sequel.

**Lemma 2** For all  $\rho \leq 0$  and  $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$ , we have

$$\int_0^\infty K_\rho^q \left(1 + \frac{x}{t}\right) e^{-x} dx \sim \frac{q!}{t^q} \text{ as } t \to \infty.$$

Let  $a_n^{(i)} = \mu_0(\log(n/k_n))/T_n^{(i)} - 1$ , for i = 1, 2, 3.

**Lemma 3** Suppose  $k \to \infty$  and  $k/n \to 0$ .

- i)  $T_n^{(1)} \log(n/k) \to 1$  and  $a_n^{(1)} = 0$ .
- ii)  $T_n^{(2)}\log(n/k) \to 1$ . If moreover  $\log(k)/\log(n) \to 0$  then  $a_n^{(2)} \sim \log(k)/(2k)$ .
- iii)  $T_n^{(3)} \log(n/k) = 1$  and  $a_n^{(3)} \sim -1/\log(n/k)$ .

The next lemma presents an expansion of  $\hat{\theta}_n$ .

**Lemma 4** Suppose  $k \to \infty$  and  $k/n \to 0$ . Under (A.1) and (A.2), the following expansions hold:

$$\hat{\theta}_n = \frac{1}{T_n} \left( \theta U_n^{(0)} + b(\log(n/k)) U_n^{(\rho)} (1 + o_{\mathbf{P}}(1)) \right),$$

where

$$U_n^{(\rho)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} K_\rho \left( 1 + \frac{F_i}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right), \ \rho \le 0$$

and where  $E_{n-k+1,n}$  is the (n-k+1)th order statistics associated to n independent standard exponential variables and  $\{F_1, \ldots, F_{k-1}\}$  are independent standard exponential variables and independent from  $E_{n-k+1,n}$ .

The next two lemmas provide the key results for establishing the asymptotic distribution of  $\hat{\theta}_n$ . Their describe they asymptotic behavior of the random terms appearing in Lemma 4.

**Lemma 5** Suppose  $k \to \infty$  and  $k/n \to 0$ . Then, for all  $\rho \le 0$ ,

$$\mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n}) \stackrel{P}{\sim} \sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n}) \stackrel{P}{\sim} \frac{1}{\log(n/k)}.$$

**Lemma 6** Suppose  $k \to \infty$  and  $k/n \to 0$ . Then, for all  $\rho \le 0$ ,

$$\frac{k^{1/2}}{\sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})}(U_n^{(\rho)} - \mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0,1).$$

### 5.2 Proofs of the main results

**Proof of Proposition 1** – Lemma 6 states that for  $\rho \leq 0$ ,

$$\frac{k^{1/2}}{\sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})}(U_n^{(\rho)} - \mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})) = \xi_n(\rho),$$

where  $\xi_n(\rho) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$  for  $\rho \leq 0$ . Then, by Lemma 4

$$k^{1/2}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) = \theta \frac{\sigma_0(E_{n-k+1,n})}{T_n} \xi_n(0) + k^{1/2} \theta \left( \frac{\mu_0(E_{n-k+1,n})}{T_n} - 1 \right) + k^{1/2} b(\log(n/k)) \left( \frac{\sigma_\rho(E_{n-k+1,n})}{T_n} \frac{\xi_n(\rho)}{k^{1/2}} + \frac{\mu_\rho(E_{n-k+1,n})}{T_n} \right) (1 + o_P(1)).$$

Since  $T_n \sim 1/\log(n/k)$  and from Lemma 5, we have

$$k^{1/2}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) = \theta \xi_{n,1} + k^{1/2}\theta \left(\frac{\mu_0(E_{n-k+1,n})}{T_n} - 1\right) + k^{1/2}b(\log(n/k))(1 + o_P(1)), \tag{8}$$

where  $\xi_{n,1} \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ . Moreover, a first-order expansion of  $\mu_0$  yields

$$\frac{\mu_0(E_{n-k+1,n})}{\mu_0(\log(n/k))} = 1 + (E_{n-k+1,n} - \log(n/k)) \frac{\mu_0^{(1)}(\eta_n)}{\mu_0(\log(n/k))},$$

where  $\eta_n \in ]\min(E_{n-k+1,n},\log(n/k)),\max(E_{n-k+1,n},\log(n/k))[$  and

$$\mu_0^{(1)}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \int_0^\infty \log\left(1 + \frac{x}{t}\right) e^{-x} dx =: \frac{d}{dt} \int_0^\infty f(x, t) dx.$$

Since for  $t \ge T > 0$ , f(.,t) is integrable, continuous and

$$\left| \frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial t} \right| = \frac{x}{t^2} \left( 1 + \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1} e^{-x} \le x \frac{e^{-x}}{T^2},$$

we have that

$$\mu_0^{(1)}(t) = -\int_0^\infty \frac{x}{t^2} \left(1 + \frac{x}{t}\right)^{-1} e^{-x} dx.$$

Then, Lebesgue Theorem implies that  $\mu_0^{(1)}(t) \sim -1/t^2$  as  $t \to \infty$ . Therefore,  $\mu_0^{(1)}$  is regularly varying at infinity and thus

$$\frac{\mu_0^{(1)}(\eta_n)}{\mu_0(\log(n/k))} \approx \frac{\mu_0^{(1)}(\log(n/k))}{\mu_0(\log(n/k))} \sim -\frac{1}{\log(n/k)}.$$

Since  $k^{1/2}(E_{n-k+1,n} - \log(n/k)) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$  (see [12], Lemma 1), we have

$$\frac{\mu_0(E_{n-k+1,n})}{\mu_0(\log(n/k))} = 1 - \frac{k^{-1/2}}{\log(n/k)} \xi_{n,2},\tag{9}$$

where  $\xi_{n,2} \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ . Collecting (8), (9) and taking into account that  $T_n \log(n/k) \to 1$  concludes the proof.

**Proof of Proposition 2** – Lemma 1 entails  $\log(n/k) \sim \log(n)$ . Since |b| is a regularly varying function,  $b(\log(n/k)) \sim b(\log(n))$  and thus,  $k^{1/2} \sim \lambda/b(\log(n))$ .

**Proof of Theorem 2** – The asymptotic normality of  $\hat{x}_{p_n}$  can be deduced from the asymptotic normality of  $\hat{\theta}_n$  using Theorem 2.3 of [10]. We are in the situation, denoted by (S.2) in the above mentioned paper, where the limit distribution of  $\hat{x}_{p_n}/x_{p_n}$  is driven by  $\hat{\theta}_n$ . Following, the notations of [10], we denote by  $\alpha_n = k_n^{1/2}$  the asymptotic rate of convergence of  $\hat{\theta}_n$ , by  $\beta_n = \theta a_n$  its asymptotic bias, and by  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{N}(0, \theta^2)$  its asymptotic distribution. It suffices to verify that

$$\log(\tau_n)\log(n/k) \to \infty. \tag{10}$$

To this end, note that conditions (5) and  $p_n < 1/n$  imply that there exists 0 < c < 1 such that

$$\log(\tau_n) > c(\tau_n - 1) > c\left(\frac{\log(n)}{\log(n/k)} - 1\right) = c\frac{\log(k)}{\log(n/k)},$$

which proves (10). We thus have

$$\frac{k^{1/2}}{\log \tau_n} \tau_n^{-\theta a_n} \left( \frac{\hat{x}_{p_n}}{x_{p_n}} - \tau_n^{\theta a_n} \right) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \theta^2).$$

Now, remarking that, from Lemma 2,  $\mu_0(\log(n/k)) \sim 1/\log(n/k) \sim T_n$ , and thus  $a_n \to 0$  gives the result.

**Proof of Corollary 1** – Lemma 3 shows that the assumptions of Theorem 1 and Theorem 2 are verified and that, for  $i = 1, 2, 3, k^{1/2}a_n^{(i)} \to 0$ .

#### Proof of Theorem 3 -

i) First, from (4) and Lemma 3 iii), since b is ultimately non-positive,

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) - AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}) = -\theta(a_n^{(3)})^2 \left(\theta + 2\frac{b(\log(n/k))}{a_n^{(3)}}\right) < 0.$$
 (11)

Second, from (4),

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}) - AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) = \theta(a_n^{(2)})^2 \left(\theta + 2\frac{b(\log(n/k))}{a_n^{(2)}}\right). \tag{12}$$

If b is ultimately non-zero, Lemma 1 entails that  $\log(n/k) \sim \log(n)$  and consequently, since |b| is regularly varying,  $b(\log(n/k)) \sim b(\log(n))$ . Thus, from Lemma 3 ii),

$$2\frac{b(\log(n/k))}{a_n^{(2)}} \sim 4b(\log n)\frac{k}{\log(k)} \to -\alpha. \tag{13}$$

Collecting (11)–(13) concludes the proof of i).

ii) First, (12) and Lemma 3 ii) yields

$$AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}) - AMSE(\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}) > 0, \tag{14}$$

since b is ultimately non-negative. Second, if b is ultimately non-zero, Lemma 1 entails that  $\log(n/k) \sim \log(n)$  and consequently, since |b| is regularly varying,  $b(\log(n/k)) \sim b(\log(n))$ . Thus, observe that in (11),

$$2\frac{b(\log(n/k))}{a_n^{(3)}} \sim -2b(\log n)(\log n) \to -\beta.$$
(15)

Collecting (11), (14) and (15) concludes the proof of ii). The case when b is ultimately zero is obtained either by considering  $\alpha = 0$  in (13), or  $\beta = 0$  in (15).

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## Appendix: proof of lemmas

**Proof of Lemma 1** - Remark that, for n large enough,

$$|k^{1/2}b(\log(n/k))| \le |k^{1/2}b(\log(n/k)) - \lambda| + |\lambda| \le 1 + |\lambda|,$$

and thus, if b is ultimately non-zero,

$$0 \le \frac{1}{2} \frac{\log(k)}{\log(n/k)} \le \frac{\log(1+|\lambda|)}{\log(n/k)} - \frac{\log|b(\log(n/k))|}{\log(n/k)}.$$
 (16)

Since |b| is a regularly varying function, we have that (see [7], Proposition 1.3.6.)

$$\frac{\log|b(\log(x))|}{\log(x)} \to 0 \text{ as } x \to \infty.$$

Then, (16) implies  $\log(k)/\log(n/k) \to 0$  which entails  $\log(k)/\log(n) \to 0$ .

**Proof of Lemma 2** – Since for all x, t > 0,  $tK_{\rho}(1 + x/t) < x$ , Lebesgue Theorem implies that

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} \int_0^\infty \left(tK_\rho\left(1+\frac{x}{t}\right)\right)^q \mathrm{e}^{-x}dx = \int_0^\infty \lim_{t\to\infty} \left(tK_\rho\left(1+\frac{x}{t}\right)\right)^q \mathrm{e}^{-x}dx = \int_0^\infty x^q \mathrm{e}^{-x}dx = q!,$$

which concludes the proof.

#### Proof of Lemma 3 -

- i) Lemma 2 shows that  $\mu_0(t) \sim 1/t$  and thus  $T_n^{(1)} \log(n/k) \to 1$ . By definition,  $a_n^{(1)} = 0$ .
- ii) The well-known inequality  $-x^2/2 \le \log(1+x) x \le 0$ , x > 0 yields

$$-\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{\log(n/k)}\frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k}\log^{2}(k/i) \le \log(n/k)T_{n}^{(2)} - \frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k}\log(k/i) \le 0.$$
 (17)

Now, since when  $k \to \infty$ ,

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \log^2(k/i) \to \int_0^1 \log^2(x) dx = 2 \text{ and } \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \log(k/i) \to -\int_0^1 \log(x) dx = 1,$$

it follows that  $T_n^{(2)}\log(n/k) \to 1$ . Let us now introduce the function defined on (0,1] by:

$$f_n(x) = \log\left(1 - \frac{\log(x)}{\log(n/k)}\right).$$

We have:

$$a_n^{(2)} = -\frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} (T_n^{(2)} - \mu_0(\log(n/k))) = -\frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \left( \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} f_n(i/k) - \int_0^1 f_n(t) dt \right)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} (f_n(i/k) - f_n(t)) dt + \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \int_0^{1/k} f_n(t) dt.$$

Since

$$f_n(t) = f_n(i/k) + (t - i/k) f_n^{(1)}(i/k) + \int_{i/k}^t (t - x) f_n^{(2)}(x) dx,$$

where  $f_n^{(p)}$  is the pth derivative of  $f_n$ , we have:

$$a_n^{(2)} = \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} (t - i/k) f_n^{(1)}(i/k) dt$$

$$+ \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} \int_{i/k}^t (t - x) f_n^{(2)}(x) dx dt + \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \int_0^{1/k} f_n(t) dt =: \Psi_1 + \Psi_2 + \Psi_3.$$

Let us focus first on the term  $\Psi_1$ :

$$\Psi_{1} = \frac{1}{T_{n}^{(2)}} \frac{1}{2k^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} f_{n}^{(1)}(i/k)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2kT_{n}^{(2)}} \int_{1/k}^{1} f_{n}^{(1)}(x)dx + \frac{1}{2kT_{n}^{(2)}} \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} f_{n}^{(1)}(i/k) - \int_{1/k}^{1} f_{n}^{(1)}(x)dx\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2kT_{n}^{(2)}} (f_{n}(1) - f_{n}(1/k)) - \frac{1}{2kT_{n}^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} (f_{n}^{(1)}(x) - f_{n}^{(1)}(i/k))dx =: \Psi_{1,1} - \Psi_{1,2}.$$

Since  $T_n^{(2)} \sim 1/\log(n/k)$  and  $\log(k)/\log(n) \to 0$ , we have:

$$\Psi_{1,1} = -\frac{1}{2kT_n^{(2)}}\log\left(1 + \frac{\log(k)}{\log(n/k)}\right) = -\frac{\log(k)}{2k}(1 + o(1)).$$

Furthermore, since, for n large enough,  $f_n^{(2)}(x) > 0$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$O \leq \Psi_{1,2} \leq \frac{1}{2kT_n^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} (f_n^{(1)}((i+1)/k) - f_n^{(1)}(i/k)) dx = \frac{1}{2k^2 T_n^{(2)}} (f_n^{(1)}(1) - f_n^{(1)}(1/k))$$
$$= \frac{1}{2k^2 T_n^{(2)}} \left( -\frac{1}{\log(n/k)} + \frac{k}{\log(n/k)} \left( 1 + \frac{\log(k)}{\log(n/k)} \right)^{-1} \right) \sim \frac{1}{2k} = o\left( \frac{\log(k)}{k} \right).$$

Thus,

$$\Psi_1 = -\frac{\log(k)}{2k}(1 + o(1)). \tag{18}$$

Second, let us focus on the term  $\Psi_2$ . Since, for n large enough,  $f_n^{(2)}(x) > 0$  for  $x \in [0,1]$ ,

$$0 \le \Psi_2 \le \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} (t - i/k) f_n^{(2)}(x) dx dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2k^2 T_n^{(2)}} (f_n^{(1)}(1) - f_n^{(1)}(1/k)) = o\left(\frac{\log(k)}{k}\right). \tag{19}$$

Finally,

$$\Psi_3 = \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \int_0^{1/k} -\frac{\log(t)}{\log(n/k)} dt + \frac{1}{T_n^{(2)}} \int_0^{1/k} \left( f_n(t) + \frac{\log(t)}{\log(n/k)} \right) dt =: \Psi_{3,1} + \Psi_{3,2},$$

and we have:

$$\Psi_{3,1} = \frac{1}{\log(n/k)T_n^{(2)}} \frac{1}{k} (\log(k) + 1) = \frac{\log(k)}{k} (1 + o(1)).$$

Furthermore, using the well known inequality:  $|\log(1+x) - x| \le x^2/2$ , x > 0, we have:

$$|\Psi_{3,2}| \leq \frac{1}{2T_n^{(2)}} \int_0^{1/k} \left(\frac{\log(t)}{\log(n/k)}\right)^2 dt = \frac{1}{2T_n^{(2)}} \frac{1}{k(\log(n/k))^2} ((\log(k))^2 + 2\log(k) + 2)$$

$$\sim \frac{(\log(k))^2}{2k\log(n/k)} = o\left(\frac{\log(k)}{k}\right),$$

since  $\log(k)/\log(n) \to 0$ . Thus,

$$\Psi_3 = \frac{\log(k)}{k} (1 + o(1)). \tag{20}$$

We conclude the proof of i) by collecting (18)-(20).

ii) First,  $T_n^{(3)}\log(n/k)=1$  by definition. Besides, we have

$$a_n^{(3)} = \frac{\mu_0(\log(n/k))}{T_n^{(3)}} - 1 = \log(n/k)\mu_0(\log(n/k)) - 1$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \log(n/k)\log\left(1 + \frac{x}{\log(n/k)}\right)e^{-x}dx - 1$$

$$= \int_0^\infty xe^{-x}dx - \frac{1}{2}\int_0^\infty \frac{x^2}{\log(n/k)}e^{-x}dx - 1 + R_n = -\frac{1}{\log(n/k)} + R_n,$$

where

$$R_n = \int_0^\infty \log(n/k) \left( \log \left( 1 + \frac{x}{\log(n/k)} \right) - \frac{x}{\log(n/k)} + \frac{x^2}{2(\log(n/k))^2} \right) e^{-x} dx.$$

Using the well known inequality:  $|\log(1+x) - x + x^2/2| \le x^3/3$ , x > 0, we have,

$$|R_n| \le \frac{1}{3} \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{(\log(n/k))^2} e^{-x} dx = o\left(\frac{1}{\log(n/k)}\right),$$

which finally yields  $a_n^{(3)} \sim -1/\log(n/k)$ .

**Proof of Lemma 4** – Recall that

$$\hat{\theta}_n =: \frac{1}{T_n} \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (\log(X_{n-i+1,n}) - \log(X_{n-k+1,n})),$$

and let  $E_{1,n}, \ldots, E_{n,n}$  be ordered statistics generated by n independent standard exponential random variables. Under (A.1), we have

$$\hat{\theta}_{n} \stackrel{d}{=} \frac{1}{T_{n}} \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (\log H^{\leftarrow}(E_{n-i+1,n}) - \log H^{\leftarrow}(E_{n-k+1,n}))$$

$$\stackrel{d}{=} \frac{1}{T_{n}} \left( \theta \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log \left( \frac{E_{n-i+1,n}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right) + \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log \left( \frac{\ell(E_{n-i+1,n})}{\ell(E_{n-k+1,n})} \right) \right).$$

Define  $x_n = E_{n-k+1,n}$  and  $\lambda_{i,n} = E_{n-i+1,n}/E_{n-k+1,n}$ . It is clear, in view of [12], Lemma 1 that  $x_n \stackrel{P}{\to} \infty$  and  $\lambda_{i,n} \stackrel{P}{\to} 1$ . Thus, (A.2) yields that uniformly in  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ :

$$\hat{\theta}_n \stackrel{d}{=} \frac{1}{T_n} \left( \theta \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log \left( \frac{E_{n-i+1,n}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right) + (1 + o_p(1)) b(E_{n-k+1,n}) \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} K_\rho \left( \frac{E_{n-i+1,n}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right) \right).$$

The Rényi representation of the Exp(1) ordered statistics (see [2], p. 72) yields

$$\left\{ \frac{E_{n-i+1,n}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right\}_{i=1,\dots,k-1} \stackrel{d}{=} \left\{ 1 + \frac{F_{k-i,k-1}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right\}_{i=1,\dots,k-1},$$
(21)

where  $\{F_{1,k-1}, \ldots, F_{k-1,k-1}\}$  are ordered statistics independent from  $E_{n-k+1,n}$  and generated by k-1 independent standard exponential variables  $\{F_1, \ldots, F_{k-1}\}$ . Therefore,

$$\hat{\theta}_{n} \stackrel{d}{=} \frac{1}{T_{n}} \left( \theta \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log \left( 1 + \frac{F_{i}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right) + (1 + o_{p}(1)) b(E_{n-k+1,n}) \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} K_{\rho} \left( 1 + \frac{F_{i}}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right) \right).$$

Remarking that  $K_0(x) = \log(x)$  concludes the proof.

**Proof of Lemma 5** – Lemma 2 implies that,

$$\mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n}) \stackrel{P}{\sim} \frac{1}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \stackrel{P}{\sim} \frac{1}{\log(n/k)},$$

since  $E_{n-k+1,n}/\log(n/k) \xrightarrow{P} 1$  (see [12], Lemma 1). Next, from Lemma 2,

$$\begin{split} \sigma_{\rho}^2(E_{n-k+1,n}) &= \frac{2}{E_{n-k+1,n}^2} (1 + o_{\mathcal{P}}(1)) - \frac{1}{E_{n-k+1,n}^2} (1 + o_{\mathcal{P}}(1)) \\ &= \frac{1}{E_{n-k+1,n}^2} (1 + o_{\mathcal{P}}(1)) = \frac{1}{(\log(n/k))^2} (1 + o_{\mathcal{P}}(1)), \end{split}$$

which concludes the proof.

**Proof of Lemma 6** – Remark that

$$\frac{k^{1/2}}{\sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})} \left( U_n^{(\rho)} - \mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n}) \right) = \frac{k^{-1/2}}{\sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \left( K_{\rho} \left( 1 + \frac{F_i}{E_{n-k+1,n}} \right) - \mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n}) \right) - k^{-1/2} \frac{\mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})}{\sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})}.$$

Let us introduce the following notation:

$$S_n(t) = \frac{(k-1)^{-1/2}}{\sigma_{\rho}(t)} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \left( K_{\rho} \left( 1 + \frac{F_i}{t} \right) - \mu_{\rho}(t) \right).$$

Thus,

$$\frac{k^{1/2}}{\sigma_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n})} \left( U_n^{(\rho)} - \mu_{\rho}(E_{n-k+1,n}) \right) = S_n(E_{n-k+1,n})(1 + o(1)) + o_{\mathbf{P}}(1),$$

from Lemma 5. It remains to prove that for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(S_n(E_{n-k+1,n}) \le x) - \Phi(x) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$

where  $\Phi$  is the cumulative distribution function of the standard Gaussian distribution. Lemma 2 implies that for all  $\varepsilon \in ]0,1[$ , there exists  $T_{\varepsilon}$  such that for all  $t \geq T_{\varepsilon}$ ,

$$\frac{q!}{t^q}(1-\varepsilon) \le \mathbb{E}\left(\left(K_\rho\left(1+\frac{F_1}{t}\right)\right)^q\right) \le \frac{q!}{t^q}(1+\varepsilon). \tag{22}$$

Furthermore, for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(S_n(E_{n-k+1,n}) \le x) - \Phi(x) = \int_0^{T_{\varepsilon}} (P(S_n(t) \le x) - \Phi(x)) h_n(t) dt + \int_{T_{\varepsilon}}^{\infty} (P(S_n(t) \le x) - \Phi(x)) h_n(t) dt =: A_n + B_n,$$

where  $h_n$  is the density of the random variable  $E_{n-k+1,n}$ . First, let us focus on the term  $A_n$ . We have,

$$|A_n| \le 2P(E_{n-k+1,n} \le T_{\varepsilon}).$$

Since  $E_{n-k+1,n}/\log(n/k) \stackrel{P}{\to} 1$  (see [12], Lemma 1), it is easy to show that  $A_n \to 0$ . Now, let us consider the term  $B_n$ . For the sake of simplicity, let us denote:

$$\left\{ Y_i = K_\rho \left( 1 + \frac{F_i}{t} \right) - \mu_\rho(t), \ i = 1, \dots, k - 1 \right\}.$$

Clearly,  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_{k-1}$  are independent, identically distributed and centered random variables. Furthermore, for  $t \geq T_{\varepsilon}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}(|Y_1|^3) \leq \mathbb{E}\left(\left(K_{\rho}\left(1 + \frac{F_1}{t}\right) + \mu_{\rho}(t)\right)^3\right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left(\left(K_{\rho}\left(1 + \frac{F_1}{t}\right)\right)^3\right) + (\mu_{\rho}(t))^3 + 3\mathbb{E}\left(\left(K_{\rho}\left(1 + \frac{F_1}{t}\right)\right)^2\right)\mu_{\rho}(t)$$

$$+ 3\mathbb{E}\left(K_{\rho}\left(1 + \frac{F_1}{t}\right)\right)(\mu_{\rho}(t))^2$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{t^3}C_1(q, \varepsilon) < \infty,$$

from (22) where  $C_1(q,\varepsilon)$  is a constant independent of t. Thus, from Esseen's inequality (see [20], Theorem 3), we have:

$$\sup_{x} |P(S_n(t) \le x) - \Phi(x)| \le C_2 L_n,$$

where  $C_2$  is a positive constant and

$$L_n = \frac{(k-1)^{-1/2}}{(\sigma_{\rho}(t))^3} \mathbb{E}(|Y_1|^3).$$

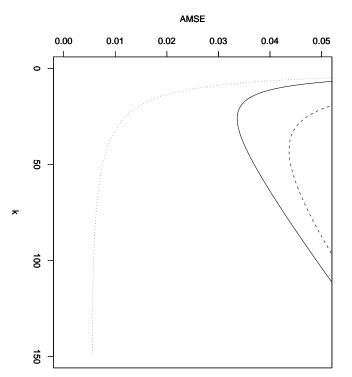
From (22), since  $t \geq T_{\varepsilon}$ ,

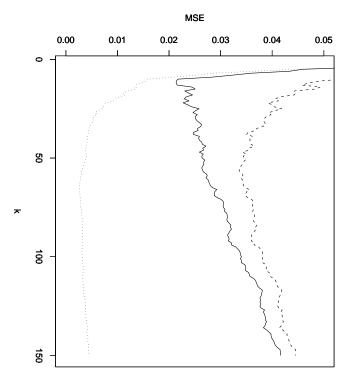
$$(\sigma_{\rho}(t))^{2} = \mathbb{E}\left(\left(K_{\rho}\left(1 + \frac{F_{1}}{t}\right)\right)^{2}\right) - \left(\mathbb{E}\left(K_{\rho}\left(1 + \frac{F_{1}}{t}\right)\right)\right)^{2} \ge \frac{1}{t^{2}}C_{3}(\varepsilon),$$

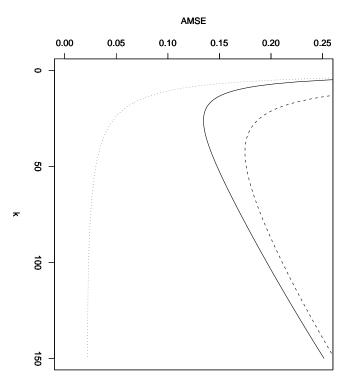
where  $C_3(\varepsilon)$  is a constant independent of t. Thus,  $L_n \leq (k-1)^{-1/2}C_4(q,\varepsilon)$  where  $C_4(q,\varepsilon)$  is a constant independent of t, and therefore

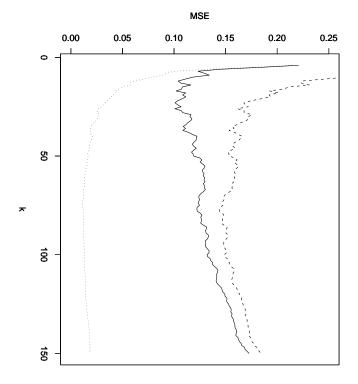
$$|B_n| \le C_4(q,\varepsilon)(k-1)^{-1/2} P(E_{n-k+1,n} \ge T_{\varepsilon}) \le C_4(q,\varepsilon)(k-1)^{-1/2} \to 0,$$

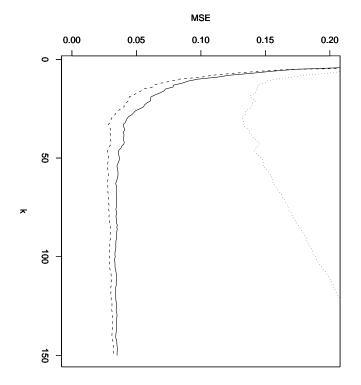
which concludes the proof.

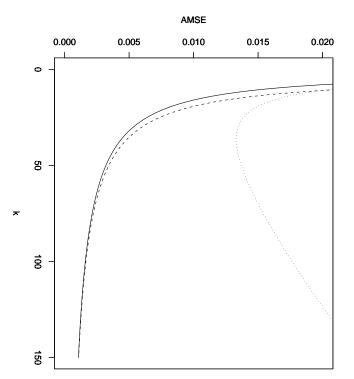


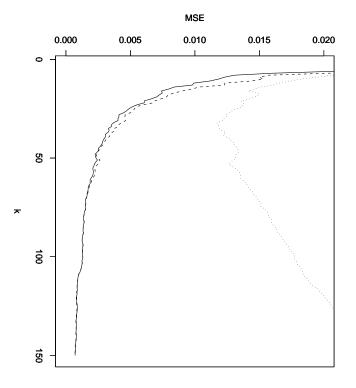












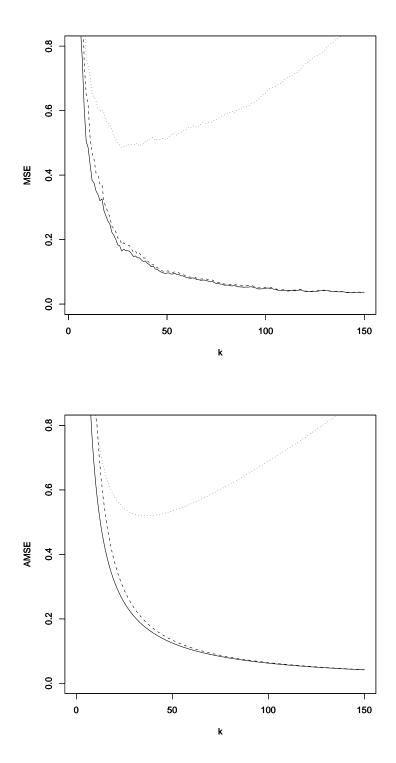


Figure 5: Comparison of estimates  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(1)}$  (solid line),  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(2)}$  (dashed line) and  $\hat{\theta}_n^{(3)}$  (dotted line) for the  $\mathcal{W}(0.4, 0.4)$  distribution. Up: MSE, down: AMSE.

